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Labor INFORMATION BULLETIN

SEPTEMBER 1943

Labor Day Statement of Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins

American working men and working women, by the millions, are toiling around the clock today that the men fighting the good fight for their country may have the weapons and materials needed to overcome the powers of evil which have so violated the dignity of man and human liberty throughout the world.

They are laboring in factory, on assembly line, in shipyards, arsenals, mines, and on the farms to maintain a production record that never has been equaled in the world's history. They are determined that that record shall be set at higher and higher levels. They are determined to do their full share in the job of winning the war and winning a good peace.

Their determination is identical with the resolve of all the people of the United States and that is why we are overcoming the Axis powers on all fronts and why complete and sweeping victory must ultimately come to the United Nations, bringing with it a new measure of liberty and opportunity for which all people long.

American working people dedicate themselves anew to that cause on this Labor Day of 1943. They have pledged themselves to win the battle of production by turning out in ever increasing numbers the tools of war for our soldiers, sailors, and marines, our medical corps, our flyers and our Allies. They promise, to the enslaved workers of Axis dominated lands, that this production will help to break their shackles and that another Labor Day will find millions of them once again enjoying the blessings of freedom such as is the heritage of American working men and women and for which our people can be so thankful today.

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

FRANCES PERKINS, Secretary

Service Industries Lose in Tight Labor Market

Maintenance of essential civilian industries is today one of the Nation's primary manpower concerns. As the normal labor supply reaches the scraping-bottom stage, with war industries demanding still more workers, the civilian services are up against a solid brick wall of huge labor demand and virtually no labor supply. Laundries, restaurants, hotels, and stores must serve an ever-increasing clientele with a labor force that has been rapidly dwindling for almost a year.

Most important of all essential civilian industries are those that maintain the elemental needs of food, shelter, clothing, transportation, and communication. They are the services without which civilian life cannot continue—food stores, dairies, restaurants; hotels and boarding houses; laundries and department and other stores; street railways and bus lines, and telephone exchanges. They are the services which have, with one or two notable exceptions, employed inexperienced labor, paid low wages, offered the most unsatisfactory working conditions, and promised the least job security. In depressions they have abundant labor resources and subsistence-level demand; in boom times they have an inadequate labor supply and huge demands upon their services.

A stable, properly functioning civilian life is necessary to more than just the morale of the individual "home-front fighter." A break-down in Detroit's laundry service means turn-over in the tank factories. Lack of restaurants in Pittsburgh means illness among steel workers. Poor department-store service in Los Angeles means absenteeism in aircraft plants. As civilian services deteriorate, war production lags.

The service industries are employers of women primarily. As a source of livelihood which paid low wages and had little in the way of job security to recommend them, these trades have always used women as a cheap labor market. Though the economic status of women has improved greatly during the past quarter-century, the pool of women workers is still the only remaining major reservoir of untrained, unorganized, and unskilled wage earners. There are, of course, exceptions and new developments brought on by the war. The telephone companies, though never attracting workers because of high wages, have counteracted this by guaranteeing good working conditions—health care, superior supervision, and career prospects for experienced employees. War demands have almost overnight forced grocery stores, which rarely used women except as cashiers, to replace men with women.

In this connection the laundries and restaurants in particular have pointed out that their price levels control wages, and because they are industries which compete with the housewife, who places no value on her own time, such service charges must be kept down. Though this competition with the housewife is diminished in time of war, when millions of homemakers become industrial workers, arbitrary price levels set to stem inflation raise the same barrier.

The War Manpower Commission launched a recruiting campaign this month for women workers in civilian-service occupations. A survey of possible inducements resolves into the simple fact that the only lure will be an appeal to the patriotism of the potential worker. The Manpower Commission recognizes that the most available labor group at the present time is the 4 million urban housewives below the age of 45 who are not responsible for the care of children under 16 years of age. These women, if they have not already gone to work in war production, obviously have not the same need of added income. Their husbands are making good wages, and though they may have been secondary wage earners in the past, they accept higher pay for the family head as a welcome reason for not working themselves. The recruiting program, therefore, must be based on a valid explanation of why they are needed in a wartime labor force outside munitions production.

The war industries naturally have a greater drawing power than the civilian industries for the normal labor force. The chief reason lies in the comparison of the average hourly earnings of 94.4 cents for all manufacturing with those of laundries at 53.4 cents, hotels at 44, retail food at 66.7, and general merchandising at 54.3. These wage conditions, together with increased living costs, higher taxes, and generally unstable residence factors, reduce the labor market for low-paying industries to the unemployed, middle-aged women with no immediate need of high income.

Manpower experts are of the opinion that the United States is now in the second stage of a contracted labor market—industry-wide shortages and shortages of related skills in other industries. The country is on its way to the third stage of a

general labor shortage such as that experienced by Germany in 1938 and Great Britain in 1941, they add, unless battle casualties are low and selective service requirements leveled off. Nowhere is the industry-wide shortage of labor more evident than in the service industries.

Laundries are in the most immediate need of help. The War Manpower Commission has already declared laundries essential in many war-production centers, thus freezing their workers and maintaining a status quo. In spite of this effort 600 laundries in the United States have closed within the past year, and demand on the service grows daily. One group of four laundries in Washington, D. C., employing 1,600 workers in March and April, reported an accession rate of 32 percent and a separation rate of 33 percent. The reasons for turn-over are the old complaints against laundries—heat, accident hazards, poor labor policy. Laundry owners report that women will work 3 or 4 weeks and then quit altogether, returning perhaps in a month or two. Meanwhile laundry piles up as the supply of domestics decreases, more factory workers create more soiled clothing, pre-war home-laundry equipment wears out with no replacements available, and more housewives go into industry.

The restaurants are particular victims of floating labor. Turn-over in some restaurants is as high as 75 percent, the greatest problem being waitresses and kitchen help. A large number of waitresses are wives following their husbands from one army camp to the next and their job tenure is accordingly brief. Lack of male help necessitates women assuming much of the heavy work in restaurants, such as carrying overloaded trays and pushing carts piled high with dishes. Complaints on this score cause a number to quit. Long hours and fatigue result in more resignations.

The telephone companies, which have never been able to find an adequate supply of experienced personnel, are now burdened with a steady loss rate that is expected to continue. Telephone systems in crowded war centers have imported operators from cities that can spare them. Every new recruit must be trained for 3 or 4 weeks and yet the turn-over in one city of 800,000 population is said to average 150 a month. A major source of dissatisfaction in telephone work is the hours — most women do not want to be liable to service at any hour of the day or night. Companies are attempting to offset these factors by a well-integrated program of morale building that includes an educational campaign on the necessity of telephone service to the conduct of the war.

Grocery chains in war centers, hit hard by the draft, have been forced to employ large numbers of women. Reporting a turn-over of approximately 50 percent, stores claim that women recruited thus far are not interested in the job as a job but only as a quick source of ready cash and the basis for future claim to business experience. Employment managers state that quits are caused by petty jealousies, fatigue, and illness—all stemming from the fact that inexperienced women workers without specific economic need cannot adjust themselves easily.

Hotels claim they lose help too fast to keep statistics up to date. Men waiters, most of whom are over draft age, are fairly stable, but kitchen, laundry, and cleaning help is scarce and transient. Department stores find a ready source of labor in school girls and in-migrants, but the schools eventually reopen and the newcomers obtain factory jobs as soon as possible, resulting in a turn-over of 60 or 70 percent.

The experience of these service industries during the past year serves as an indication of the greater difficulties ahead, as, with the pick of workers already absorbed, there remains in the labor market only the least adaptable, least approachable, group of available womanpower. Complicating the problem is the fact that areas of possible recruitment are restricted by concentration of demand in war-production centers, such as Buffalo, Detroit, Seattle.

Though the issue is primarily one of recruitment, the stringency can be lessened by a well integrated plan of job analysis and labor utilization.

The American Institute of Laundering has made a detailed study of laundry jobs on which physically handicapped and older people can be used. Application of this procedure in the tight-labor areas would improve employment conditions, since plants in war production are unable, generally, to use crippled, deaf, and aged women. Utilization of the handicapped in laundry jobs would release able-bodied women for service in other civilian industries such as restaurants, hotels, and retail stores.

In addition to internal adjustments, the civilian industries must have Government aid in order to maintain service. This is now being implemented by the War Labor Board and the Office of Price Administration. In New York City, not a labor-stringency area, WLB has already granted wage increases for laundry workers and the operators are petitioning OPA for a rise in price ceilings. The service trades have been helped also by the War Labor Board's announcement of wage floors in various regions which enable proprietors in low-paying industries to raise wages to a certain level without recourse to the Board. In a large number of cases the wages paid to employees in the service trades have been below this floor.

With the aid of carefully planned recruiting programs, industry-wide studies of jobs and womanpower potentialities, and Government control of wages and prices, the civilian industries can be maintained. The alternative, in the view of all concerned, is decreased production of war matériel and increased problems in other sectors of the labor front.

Women's Employment in Professional or Technical Jobs

Women were reported in various professional or technical jobs in nearly two-fifths of the plants visited early in 1943 by representatives of the Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor. Some of these plants had women as engineers, chemists, draftsmen, and at least one plant reported a woman physicist, another women on time study. A few employers indicated that more women in these professions could be employed if they were available.

In the aircraft-and-parts industry a woman engineer was employed in each of 3 plants and 2 of these had women on drafting. One plant reported 3 women safety engineers, another 3 chemists. In still another were 2 women engineers, 27 metal testers, and 4 physics-laboratory testers.

In a plant making communications equipment there are a woman engineer, a chemist, and one or two on time study. Another such plant employs a woman engineer on plant lay-out, a few as statisticians, two as chemical analysts. Such women are hard to find. The company could use more.

A plant making scientific instruments employs a woman chemist, a physicist, and about eight draftsmen. Another chemist is needed but no woman can be found and a man may be hired. There are four women in the export department translating for South American trade.

In the ordnance field one plant employs 3 women engineers and a draftsman; another 6 chemists, 34 laboratory workers, and an X-ray technician.

An eastern shipbuilding company reports seven women engineers, a rubber-products plant two chemists and some chemist's assistants.

A woman physicist has said, "For laboratory work you need formal training, of course, and in addition you need persistence, patience, and a knack at solving problems—and the most important of these is the knack at solving problems."

This knack of solving problems may be an important factor with the many women being brought into war plants as laboratory assistants, engineering aides, tracers, testers, drafting clerks, and so on. Women can be prepared to do such routine jobs by short intensive courses or by training in the plant itself. For some of these positions high-school girls can qualify. The encouraging thing is that having gained an entrance girls with interest and aptitude, with a knack of solving problems, may go on to better jobs.

An oil-refining plant employed 30 women in the laboratory making routine physical tests. They have proved better on this work than men, so the company believes that it will retain them after the war. They were given 2 weeks' preproduction training in the laboratory, during which time they were paid.

In a small material-testing laboratory of a shipyard three women began work nearly a year ago. One does chemical analysis, one helps to operate machines to test the strength of metals, the third does sand-control work in the foundry. All are college graduates.

In a plant making bomb releases, gyroscope parts, and so forth, women work as junior laboratory chemists, junior research engineers, X-ray technicians, analytical chemists, and black-light testers, work formerly done by junior engineers.

The testing of cables done by women in an aircraft plant is closely allied to production work, but requires considerable skill and technical knowledge. Women install the entire instrument board, put on control switches and do all wiring and tubing operations pertaining to the instrument board. Women radio technicians were employed in another plant, a few draftsmen in a third.

In a scientific-instruments plant a girl does experimental work in the laboratory testing. Another does spectroscopic testing to determine what metals are present in various solutions.

A paper plant employs 60 women laboratory workers. Of these, 2 test pulp in the mill before the paper-making process begins; 16 measure wood as it comes into the woodyard. Tests of various sorts are made in the laboratory; for example, to determine the acidity or alkalinity of solutions. Some 15 or 20 more women might be used. In the tall oil plant were 2 women chemists. Tall oil is a byproduct of paper making and an essential war product.

In each of two milling companies women were doing routine laboratory testing. In one the work was described as testing for protein content, moisture ash, and vitamin B_1. With the program for enrichment of flour, much additional testing no doubt must be done. The work of women dietitians in determining vitamin content of foods, ways of preserving these food values in cooking or preserving, and so on, is well known.

Before women were hired this spring for surface work in a molybdenum mine, a woman with training in mining engineering was employed to survey the possibilities of using women. She is now supervisor of these women.

Only a few of the many new professional and semiprofessional jobs women are entering in the Federal Government may be mentioned. In the summer of 1942, 2 women engineers and 2 draftsmen were working for Civil Aeronautics Administration. The demand for civilian junior engineers is so great that women with college degrees in any field may qualify by taking a short tuition-free course.

Civil Aeronautics in December 1942 had 700 women communications and traffic-control operators. The Weather Bureau has appointed more

than 300 women weather observers. The Bureau of Standards has a special school to train women in metallurgy; women inspect quartz crystals from Brazil, work that has been done by men with at least 2 years of college physics. The Patent Office employs 4 women as examiners, a job requiring engineering training. About 400 women were working this spring in the chart division of the Coast and Geodetic Survey, where more than a million maps a month are turned out for the Army and Navy. There are only two steps in the process where there are no women.

A study has been made recently by the American Paper and Pulp Association on the employment of women in that industry. It covers about 100 firms employing more than 70,000 workers. In the technical department in March 1943 these plants reported 41 women chemists, compared with 5 in March 1941; 500 testers of pulp and paper compared with 13; and 62 research helpers compared with 8. There were 1 research engineer, 2 draftsmen, and 47 inspectors, positions no women held in 1941. Numbers of women to be added as necessary were 33 chemists, 201 testers, 29 inspectors, 3 draftsmen, and 27 research helpers. A press story of an individual plant making paper-board containers tells of women replacing men in the laboratory. Some of the routine tests made to determine the strength of the containers are: Mullen test to check the point at which paper or paper-board will burst; Scoll tensile-machine test to determine the "pull" strength of paper; compression tests carried out on both full and empty containers to determine how much bumping they will stand in handling, how high filled containers may be piled, and so on.

Two interesting examples may be cited of the way in which exposure to a technical problem may arouse a woman's interest.

(1) In the Technical Standards Division of Rural Electrification a young woman hated figures because they meant hours of typing. One day, out of curiosity, she asked her supervisor how to use a slide rule. Today, under his direction, she is working out her first sectionalizing study. These studies are highly complicated plans for shutting off certain sections of a power line whenever trouble in that section threatens to disrupt service. Fuses of different sizes and circuit breakers must be so placed and so coordinated that the faulty portion of the line will be cut off first, while the rest of the circuit continues to function. Making such a study involves more than use of advanced algebra and engineering formulas. It requires judgment to decide how best to protect important loads and where to place circuit-breaking apparatus for easy access.

(2) There is only one woman in the United States who computes isocandle and isolux curves for the use of electrical engineers. She began work for the General Electric Illuminating Laboratory nearly 3 years ago. Though she is not a high-school graduate she has worked herself into this unusual job. On the testing range, all in one day, a billion-candlepower searchlight may be analyzed, then the light from a cigarette measured. With a knack for mathematics this girl proceeded to find out how and why. Now she knows how to make some 800 photometer readings. From these she computes with slide rule and calculator the curves showing the light distribution obtained by testing a unit. *(Continued on p. 7.)*

65,000 Workers Sustain Disabling Injuries

Approximately 65,000 workers in the manufacturing industries of the United States experienced disabling injuries at work during May, according to a report summarizing estimates based upon the Bureau of Labor Statistics monthly industrial injury survey.

Using the conservative average of 20 days lost time for each disabling injury, these injuries represent the direct loss of 1,300,000 man-days of productive effort, a loss equivalent to the withdrawal of 50,000 workers from their manufacturing activities for the entire month.

At the end of the reporting period, 0.4 percent of the reported injuries were known to have resulted in death, and 3.2 percent had definitely developed into permanent physical impairments. Later information probably will show that other injuries, which appeared only temporary at the end of May, developed into additional deaths and permanent impairments.

Cumulative injury frequency rates for the first 5 months of 1943 ranged from an average of 4.7 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked in the women's clothing industry to 66.4 in the planing mill industry. Five other industries had cumulative frequency rates which ranged above 40. At the other end of the scale the best safety records for the 5-month period were those of the following industries: Women's Clothing, 4.7; Sighting and Fire Control Equipment, 7.1; Rayon and Allied Products (Chemical), 7.4; Radios and Phonographs, 7.8; Soap and Glycerine, 8.4; Men's Clothing, 8.7; Cement, 9.1; and Iron and Steel, 9.9.

Employment and Weekly Pay Rolls

A total of 38,370,000 people were employed in nonagricultural establishments in July 1943, on the basis of reports made to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This level of employment indicates a net addition over the year of 1,136,000 employees, or an increase of 3 percent, which is due primarily to the continued expansion of the manufacturing industries. Total nonagricultural employment in July was slightly below that in June. The small decline (0.3 percent) can be attributed to continuing wartime restrictions on the construction industry and a seasonal drop in retail trade, which together offset the increase in manufacturing.

MANUFACTURING

From June to July, the number of wage earners in manufacturing industries increased by 61,000 to a total of 13,882,000. The transportation equipment and automobile groups continued their expansion by adding 24,000 wage earners during the month. The food group experienced a seasonal increase of 62,000, principally in the canning industries; the usual summer recession in the textile and apparel industries accounted for a decline of about 30,000. Since July 1942, wage earners in all manufacturing industries increased 10 percent; the durable-goods industries increased 18 percent, and nondurable goods industries 1 percent.

Weekly earnings in all manufacturing industries averaged $43.35 in June 1943 as compared with $43.22 in May. Weekly earnings in the durable-goods group, averaging $49.37, were 17 percent above June of last year while the earnings in the nondurable group, averaging $34.41, were 21 percent higher than a year ago.

NONMANUFACTURING

Employment in bituminous coal mining continued to decline, reaching a level more than one percent below June 1943 and almost 15 percent below July 1942. With the exception of iron, each of the metal mining industries had lower employment in July 1943 than in either June 1943 or July 1942. The metalliferous mining group as a whole employed 96,000 wage earners in July as compared with 109,000 a year ago.

Estimated number of wage earners and average weekly earnings in manufacturing industries by major industry groups (adjusted to Bureau of Employment Security final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942)

Industry group	Estimated number of wage earners (thousands)			Average weekly earnings		
	July 1943	June 1943	July 1942	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942
All Manufacturing	*Preliminary* **13,882**	**13,821**	**12,564**	**$43.35**	**$43.22**	**$36.25**
Durable goods	*8,281*	*8,250*	*7,003*	*49.37*	*49.35*	*42.26*
Iron and steel and their products	1,713	1,718	1,612	48.08	47.65	40.42
Electrical machinery	708	702	542	45.73	45.60	41.81
Machinery, except electrical	1,252	1,251	1,094	52.48	52.54	47.71
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	2,302	2,288	1,559	56.00	56.29	50.80
Automobiles	686	676	513	57.10	57.00	51.55
Nonferrous metals and their products	415	415	381	47.47	47.76	40.32
Lumber and timber basic products	485	482	559	32.81	32.24	27.00
Furniture and finished lumber products	361	358	374	33.00	32.74	27.10
Stone, clay, and glass products	359	360	369	36.46	36.25	30.96
Nondurable goods	*5,601*	*5,571*	*5,561*	*34.41*	*34.11*	*28.65*
Textile mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,220	1,233	1,293	27.66	27.79	23.84
Apparel and other finished textile products	832	850	866	26.63	26.61	21.56
Leather and leather products	328	333	374	29.93	30.03	25.83
Food and kindred products	1,015	953	1,052	36.05	35.63	30.17
Tobacco manufactures	89	89	94	26.45	25.29	22.37
Paper and allied products	317	317	302	36.47	36.21	30.13
Printing, publishing and allied products	334	334	325	40.42	39.86	36.21
Chemicals and allied products	739	741	613	42.04	41.50	36.72
Products of petroleum and coal	126	125	129	51.48	49.93	40.05
Rubber products	193	189	153	47.10	45.63	38.22
Miscellaneous industries	408	407	360	40.83	40.83	33.63

Estimated number of wage earners and average weekly earnings in selected nonmanufacturing industries

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (thousands)			Average weekly earnings		
	July 1943	June 1943	July 1942	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942
	Preliminary					
Anthracite mining	(1)	71.6	77.0	$30.32	$37.39	$40.25
Bituminous-coal mining	374	379	439	31.81	39.51	39.91
Metalliferous mining	96.0	97.6	109.0	44.39	43.43	39.12
Iron	34.1	33.9	32.6	42.14	40.92	38.37
Copper	30.1	30.9	31.4	47.78	47.03	40.40
Lead and zinc	18.4	18.8	19.6	43.26	42.62	39.10
Gold and silver	6.6	7.2	18.3	41.48	41.51	36.84
Miscellaneous	6.8	6.8	7.0	45.66	46.21	38.14
Hotels (including salaried employees)	346	344	331	20.00	19.75	17.43
Power laundries	267	270	281	23.64	23.87	20.86
Dyeing and cleaning	84.8	86.8	85.0	29.15	28.93	25.33

[1] Not available.

Factory Working Hours Show Big Increase

Due to expansion in employment, total hours worked per week in June in all manufacturing were more than 5 million greater than in May. The increase in employment was more than sufficient to offset a decline of one-tenth of an hour in the work-week, due in part to vacations, which brought the available hours per week to 45.2.

Each of four durable groups which had a shorter work-week in June than May reported longer total hours. The increases in total hours for these groups that had lower average hours in June than May were as follows: transportation, 1,364,000; machinery, 183,000; nonferrous, 176,000; and electrical machinery, 118,000.

In the nondurable groups, however, the opposite situation prevailed. The three groups which had a shorter work-week in June than in May, also had drops in employment. The combined effect was a reduction in total hours of 1 percent for the textile mill products group, 2 percent for leather, and a little more than 2 percent for apparel. June is always a slack month for the industries comprising these groups.

The effect of the general coal strike is reflected in the 22.2 percent drop in average hours per week in the anthracite industry and in the 20.4 percent drop in the bituminous coal mining industry between May and June. The work-week in each of the mining industries averaged only slightly more than 28 hours.

Women's Employment in Professional or Technical Jobs

(Continued from p. 5.)

Today, according to Dr. Helen I. Miner, reporting to the American Chemical Society, the scope of opportunities for women in industrial chemistry is almost unlimited. The Cellophane Research Laboratories of the Du Pont's Rayon Department in Buffalo employs 12 women in a group of 60. Of the 12, 4 are doing research work, the others are technicians assisting research chemists. At the Hercules Experiment Station in Wilmington, 13 women held technical posts in December 1941. A year later the number had increased to 48 chemical engineers, chemists, and technicians—1 woman for every 5 men on the technical staff. At the research laboratory of the Victor Chemical Works at Chicago, women comprise one-fourth of the staff, their work ranging from routine bottle washing to advanced research. Many of the company's facilities are devoted to production of chemicals for war uses. Food chemicals for civilians and the armed services and industrial chemicals essential to the making of munitions are included. Research is being done on fireproofing compounds and waterproofing compounds. The new synthetic-rubber plant in West Virginia employs a woman graduate chemist and 5 college graduates with some technical training who function as technical clerks. There are 20 junior analysts and 8 who make physical tests of rubber. These girls are high-school graduates, and have had a special 4-month course under graduate supervision. At full capacity it is expected that 50 girl analysts will be employed.

Cost of Living in July, 1943

With meat prices cut back by the OPA and vegetables seasonally lower, the cost of living for city workers dropped 0.8 percent from mid-June to mid-July—its first substantial decline since Pearl Harbor. Retail food prices as a group—representing about two-fifths of total living costs—declined by 2.0 percent. Clothing costs rose 0.5 percent. Other costs, including house furnishings, utility rates and services, were stable or increased moderately.

Until this summer, the rise in living costs had been almost uninterrupted since Germany invaded Poland. The only previous monthly declines were during the 3-month period immediately after the outbreak of war, following a speculative rise in food costs, and a small decline of 0.2 percent from May to June of this year. The Bureau of Labor Statistics' index of the cost of living on July 15 was at 123.8 percent of its 1935-39 average, about 5 percent above September 1942 and 23 percent above January 1941, base date of the Little Steel formula.

The substantial declines for most meats in July resulted from reductions in maximum prices ordered by the OPA. They included an 8½ percent drop for beef and veal, 8 percent for pork, and 4 percent for lamb. Prices of chickens, which were not affected by the OPA cutback, were down fractionally—0.5 percent. There were continued reports of acute shortages of beef and poultry in many areas. Fresh fish prices rose 4 percent from mid-June to mid-July, but were subject to an OPA regulation on July 22, establishing maximum retail prices below the July 15 level. On the average, prices of meat, including fish, were down 5.5 percent.

Victory garden produce and larger commercial supplies helped to accelerate the normal summer decline in vegetable prices which in almost all cases was greater than usual from June to July. Cabbage was down 35 percent, beets 27 percent, white potatoes 15 percent, lettuce 11 percent, sweetpotatoes 5 percent and onions 2 percent. Prices of spinach, on the other hand, rose 42 percent, with supplies extremely scarce in some cities. Despite the many summer reductions, fresh vegetable prices as a group were still about 40 percent above a year ago.

Aside from spinach and fresh fish, the only important price increases among foods were seasonal advances of 5 percent for eggs, a greater than seasonal increase of 10 percent for oranges, and smaller advances for dried fruits and some cereals.

Clothing prices in July were on the average about 0.5 percent above June, mainly because of a fairly widespread substitution of higher priced lines of women's percale house dresses, men's business shirts, and chambray work shirts.

Miscellaneous goods and services rose 0.2 percent, with medical expenses and beauty and barber shop and laundry services somewhat higher than in June. The higher costs for laundry services were the result of local adjustments in maximum charges by the OPA, in most cases because of higher labor costs.

Cost of living in 21 large cities

Area and city	Index as of July 15, 1943 1935-39=100	Percent of change from—		
		June 15, 1943 to July 15, 1943	July 15, 1942, to July 15, 1943	Aug. 15, 1939, to July 15, 1943
Average: Large cities	**123.8**	**−0.8**	**+5.8**	**+25.6**
North Atlantic:				
Boston	120.2	−1.3	+3.8	+23.8
Buffalo	126.1	−1.3	+4.3	+28.0
New York	123.8	0	+7.5	+25.1
Philadelphia	122.6	−1.0	+5.4	+25.4
Pittsburgh	123.6	−1.0	+6.0	+25.6
South Atlantic:				
Baltimore	125.9	−1.7	+6.2	+27.6
Savannah	132.2	−.1	+8.7	+33.1
Washington, D. C.	123.0	−.6	+5.7	+24.7
North Central:				
Chicago	122.9	−1.0	+5.6	+24.5
Cincinnati	123.6	−.6	+5.9	+27.0
Cleveland	127.7	−1.2	+7.1	+27.7
Detroit	126.0	−.6	+6.3	+27.9
Kansas City	120.7	−.9	+6.1	+22.4
Minneapolis	121.0	−.7	+4.2	+21.4
St. Louis	123.1	−.5	+5.8	+25.5
South Central:				
Birmingham	126.1	−.2	+7.6	+28.0
Houston	122.5	−.6	+5.0	+21.6
Western:				
Denver	122.6	−.7	+5.7	+24.3
Los Angeles	125.0	−1.0	+4.2	+24.4
San Francisco	127.4	−1.0	+7.7	+28.3
Seattle	126.2	−1.5	+5.4	+25.8

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services
maximum
ecause of

te from—

Aug. 15, 1939, to July 15, 1943
+25.6
+23.8
+28.0
+25.1
+25.4
+25.6
+27.6
+33.1
+24.7
+24.5
+27.0
+27.7
+27.9
+22.4
+21.4
+25.5
+28.0
+21.6
+24.3
+24.4
+28.3
+25.8

letin